Money, Inflation, and Recessions

ECON8069 - Lecture 11

Australian National University

- Money
- Inflation
- Short-Run Fluctuations

Textbook: Chapters 25 and 26

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Money is the set of assets in the economy which people regularly use to buy goods and services from other people.

It has three core functions:

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Anything with these properties can be 'money'

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Kinds of Money

There are two broad kinds of money:

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- Commodity Money is when a commodity is treated as money
 - E.g. Gold, silver, cigarettes, etc.
- Fiat Money is when something is accepted as money, but is not backed by any physical commodity
 - Australian dollars, any other national currency
 - Cryto-currencies (e.g. Bitcoin) might be best thought of as a kind of fiat money, though there is some debate over this

Central Banks

- A Central Bank is an institution designed to oversee the banking system, money system, and financial conditions of the economy
- In the modern era, this is usually a public entity which is separate from the government
- In Australia we have the Reserve Bank of Australia (RBA)
 - Formulates and administers monetary policy
 - Maintains financial stability, including stability of the payments system
 - Recent News setting of interest rates will be devolved to a specific Monetary Policy Board within the RBA

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Fractional Reserve Banking

- The money supply is affected by the amount deposited in banks, and the amount banks loan out
- Deposits are both an asset (the money) and a liability (the bank 'owes' the money to the depositor)
- Loans from the bank are an asset to the bank

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- Loans from the bank are an asset to the bank
- Banks take in money deposits, and then give that money back out as loans

Fractional Reserve Banking

- Reserves are deposits that banks have received but not yet loaned out
- In a fractional-reserve system the bank must hold a fraction of its deposits as reserves (and chooses to lend the rest)
- The **reserve ratio** is the fraction of deposits that are reserves

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- The bank reserves \$10, lends out \$90 to Bob
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- The bank reserves \$10, lends out \$90 to Bob
- There's now \$190 in the economy: \$100 is Ann's bank account, an \$90 in Bob's
- The bank reserves \$9, lends out \$81 to Chingyin
- There's now \$271 in the economy

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- When one bank loans out money, this becomes deposits to another bank
- This creates more deposits, which becomes more loans, which ...
- The process does not continue to infinity. The Money Multiplier is the reciprocal of the reserve ratio

$$M = 1/R$$

• e.g. With a reserve ratio of 5%, there is a multiplier of 20 times

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Monetary Policy

There are two broad ways the central bank can choose between to influence the money market

- 1. Fix the amount of currency
 - Any currency backed by a commodity naturally has a fixed level of currency
- 2. Fix the 'price' of currency (the interest rate)
 - Only available for fiat currencies
 - (Opinion): No substantial downsides, fairly easy to implement
 - What is actually used in Australia, and most places
 - Relatively new, being implemented in the late 80's, early 90's

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Open-market Operations

The main way the RBA targets the interest rate (or cash rate) is through open-market operations

- This is the buying and selling of government securities
- The government buys (and sells) as many securities as needed at the target cash rate
- The target rate thus serves as both a price ceiling and price floor for the interest rate

Cash Rate - Historical

Graph of the Cash Rate Target



Source: RBA

Monetary Policy

Changes in the cash rate is the main mechanism of the RBA to effect the broader economy

- If the economy is growing too fast, the RBA can increase the cash rate
- This increases the price of money, the interest rate
- Increasing the interest rate discourages borrowing, decreases prices, and slows the economy

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- Similarly if the economy is growing too slowly

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So inflation is caused by Money Supply increasing faster than real GDP

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Consequences of Inflation

- Neutral Consequences:
 - Some instances where there are winners and losers.
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- Negative Consequences:
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- Positive Consequences:
 - Creates government revenue
 - Can help solve the 'downward wage rigidity problem'

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The Classical Dichotomy

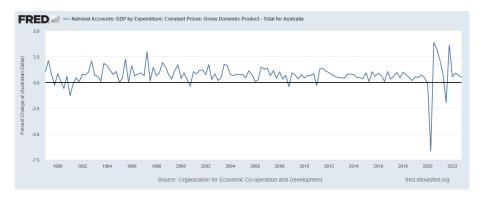
- Economic variables can be divided into:
 - Nominal Variables those measured in dollar terms
 - Real Variables those measured in constant units
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- Economic variables can be divided into:
 - Nominal Variables those measured in dollar terms
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- The classical dichotomy says that different forces influence real versus nominal variables.
- Can also be called monetary neutrality.
- Tends to be false in the short run, and true in the long run.

- Economic growth is rarely a steady rate per year
- Short-run changes in the growth rate of (real) GDP are called economic fluctuations or business cycles
- Recessions are when real GDP falls (for 2 consecutive quarters)
- Economic expansions occur between recessions

Real GDP growth rate Australia - \$ change per quarter



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 - Hard to predict when a recession will hit
 - Hard to tell how long it will last
- 3. Persistence in the rate of economic growth

Why do Recessions Occur?

A few potential explanations for why recessions occur have been proposed:

- Keynesian theory
- Real business cycle (RBC) theory
- Monetarist theory

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- All this leads to a fall in real GDP

A small shock has lead to cascading pessimism, thus a large effect on GDP

Recessions in RBC Theory

- RBC theory says that technological progress leads to increasing marginal product of labour
- This increases demand for labour employment and wages both increase
- This increases income, consumption, and investment
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- Recessions are trickier to explain need a fall in technology
 - Oil price increases (e.g. 1970's) could be described as a fall in technology

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Modelling Recessions - Labour Market and the Production Function

 Suppose a shock reduces the Demand for Labour - this leads to less employment (see Labour Market)

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- Suppose a shock reduces the Demand for Labour this leads to less employment (see Labour Market)
- Lower employment leads to reduces output (see production function model)
- Downward Wage Rigidity (from last week) can make this process much much worse

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Multipliers

- According to the Keynesian models, there are feedback loops, or multipliers, which make the fall in Labour Demand even worse
- The initial fall in demand results in lower output, which (ultimately) further reduces demand for labour
- This is made even worse (again) if there are rigid wages

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Short-run, Medium-run and Long-run

- Short-run is a few quarters
 - This is our analysis so far
- Medium-run is 2-3 years
 - Things start to correct due to market forces, and government policies
- Long-run is 10+ years
 - There are no 'fluctuations' in the long run. Only Solow-style steady states

Medium Run - Government Policies

- Monetary Policy: Lower interest rates
 - Lower real interest rates encourages investment
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- Fiscal Policy: Tax and Spend
 - Automatic stabilisers begin to work, increasing demand for goods, and thus demand for labour to make those goods
 - Government may also cut taxes/increase spending independent of the automatic stabilisers

Medium Run - Market Forces

- As the banking system recovers, businesses have access to credit, so capital demand, and thus labour demand, increases
- Technological development leads to increased labour demand
- Inventories become empty, so firms need to re-start production

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Medium Run - Equilibrium

• Overall, the Labour Demand has partially increased

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- Overall, the Labour Demand has partially increased
- In most cases, downward wage rigidity will still be binding
- If inflation was sufficiently large, the Labour Supply may have increased enough that the downward wage rigidity will be non-binding